PSYCHOLOGY FOR PROFESSIONAL GROUP
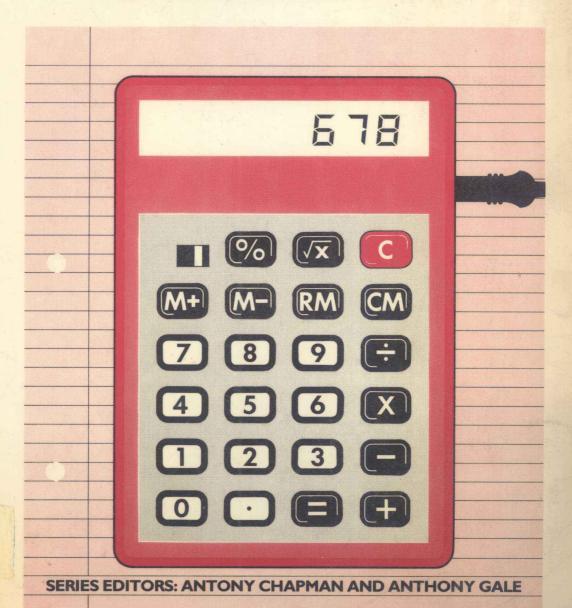
CARY L. COOPER

PSYCHOLOGY AND MANAGEMENT

A TEXT FOR MANAGERS AND TRADE UNIONISTS

SERIES EDITORS: ANTONY CHAPMAN AND ANTHONY GALE

Psychology and Management

A text for managers and trade unionists

Cary L Cooper

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Note: throughout these texts, the masculine pronouns have
been used for succinctness and are intended to refer to both
females and males.

The conclusions drawn and opinions expressed are those of
the authors. They should not be taken to represent the
views of the publishers.

Psychology and Management
A text for managers and trade unionists

Psychology for Professional Groups

Psychology for Professional Groups is a new series of major textbooks published with the British Psychological Society. Each is edited by a teacher with expertise in the application of psychology to professional practice and covers the key topics in the training syllabus. The editors have drawn upon a series of specially commissioned topic chapters prepared by leading psychologists and have set them within the context of their various professions. A tutor manual is available for each text and includes examination questions, practical exercises and projects, further reading and general guidance for the tutor. Each textbook shows in a fresh, original and authoritative way how psychology may be applied in a variety of professional settings, and how practitioners may improve their skills and gain a deeper understanding of themselves. There is also a general tutorial text incorporating the complete set of specialist chapters and their associated teaching materials.

Foreword

This book is one of a series, the principal aims of which
are to illustrate how psychology can be applied in parti-
cular professional contexts, how it can improve the skills
of practitioners, and how it can increase the practitioners'
and students' understanding of themselves.

Psychology is taught to many groups of students and is
now integrated within prescribed syllabuses for an increas-
ing number of professions. The existing texts which teachers
have been obliged to recommend are typically designed for
broad and disparate purposes, and consequently they fail to
reflect the special needs of students in professional
training. The starting point for the series was the
systematic distillation of views expressed in professional
journals by those psychologists whose teaching specialisms
relate to the applications of psychology. It soon became
apparent that many fundamental topics were common to a
number of syllabuses and courses; yet in general intro-
ductory textbooks these topics tend to be embedded amongst
much superfluous material. Therefore, from within the
British Psychological Society, we invited experienced
teachers and authorities in their field to write review
chapters on key topics. Forty-seven chapters covering 23
topics were then available for selection by the series'
Volume Editors. The Volume Editors are also psychologists
and they have had many years of involvement with their
respective professions. In preparing their books, they have
consulted formally with colleagues in those professions.
Each of their books has its own combination of the
specially-prepared chapters, set in the context of the
specific professional practice.

Because psychology is only one component of the various
training curricula, and because students generally have
limited access to learned journals and specialist texts, our
contributors to the series have restricted their use of
references, while at the same time providing short lists of
annotated readings. In addition, they have provided review
questions to help students organize their learning and
prepare for examinations. Further teaching materials, in the
form of additional references, projects, exercises and class
notes, are available in Tutor Manuals prepared for each
book. A comprehensive tutorial text ('Psychology and
People'), prepared by the Series Editors, combines in a

single volume all the key topics, together with their associated teaching materials.

It is intended that new titles will be added to the series and that existing titles will be revised in the light of changing requirements. Evaluative and constructive comments, bearing on any aspect of the series, are most welcome and should be addressed to us at the BPS in Leicester.

In devising and developing the series we have had the good fortune to benefit from the advice and support of Dr Halla Beloff, Professor Philip Levy, Mr Allan Sakne and Mr John Winckler. A great burden has been borne by Mrs Gail Sheffield, who with skill, tact and courtesy, has managed the production of the series: to her and her colleagues at the BPS headquarters and at the Macmillan Press, we express our thanks.

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May 1981

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Introduction
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Before we can begin to understand how psychological research and theory can contribute to the skills and performance of managers and those working on behalf of the trade union movement, we must first explore the nature of their roles, functions and activities at work. What overall functions do different managers and trade unionists perform in the course of their normal working week? What are the activities that are common to both groups, and those that are distinct?

Managers

We would have no trouble finding definitions of the role of managers or management from among the best-sellers of Drucke or other management gurus, but the approach that appeals to me is to try and categorize the different types of managers by acknowledging the reality that individual managers behave in quite different ways. This allows us to get a feel for the generic role of management; all the activities that should be performed if 'superman-ager' existed.

Handy (1976) recently remarked that 'the last quarter century has seen the emergence of "the manager" as a recognized occupational role in society'. He then goes on to suggest that managers seem to be increasingly playing two primary sets of roles: the manager as a person or the manager as a GP. The manager as a person alludes to the increasing professionalization of managers, so that managers are acquiring a set of skills which are, and arguably should be, independent of any organization for whom he does, or could, work. Since organizations seem to care less for the home/work interface concerns of their managers than previously (Cooper, 1979b), it is in their interest to make sure they continue to make themselves marketable by further education and career-management. The manager as a GP concept, on the other hand, is based on the premise that the manager is the 'first recipient of problems' which require solutions or decisions. It is the role of a manager in this context to carry out four basic activities at work: (i) identify the symptoms in the situation; (ii) diagnose the cause of trouble; (iii) decide how to deal with it; and (iv) start the treatment or make the decision or create the action plans. Handy argues that all too often the symptoms are treated like diseases in the 'industrial wards' of the

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country, and that managers who do not follow the medical model above in dealing with issues and problems, but stop at stage one, find that the illness or sources of grievance return in the same form or in disguise. Frequently we find managers who can diagnose the symptoms, such as poor morale or bad communications, but then provide solutions without knowing the cause: for example, poor communications - start in-house journal; late arrivals to work - introduce time-clocks, etc. In order to identify adequately and accurately problems or situations, it is absolutely essential to understand the needs of individual workers, be they other managers or unskilled labourers. Diagnosis not only involves understanding individual behaviour but also the dynamics of groups within the organizations and the consequences of action plans that may affect groups outside.

Handy also suggests that the manager as a GP, when considering strategies for improving the health of the organization, should consider and be aware of three sets of variables; the people, the work and the structure, systems and procedure of the organization. In terms of 'people concerns', he should be aware of individual needs, training and education potential, career development, motivation, need for counselling or support, etc., whereas in terms of the organizational structure and systems he should be aware of the nature of roles, inter-group conflict, small group behaviour, decision making, negotiating processes, reward systems, etc. The general practitioner manager is not only expected to be aware of these factors and processes but also to understand their interaction: that is, how change in one may produce change in another.

And finally, a crucial characteristic of any skilled manager is to be aware of change and how to implement it. This requires an understanding of learning theory, the various strategies for change (counselling, behaviour modification, etc.), the dilemmas people experience at different times in their lives, identifying an initiating person or group, creating an awareness of change, and so on. This is part and parcel of any GP role whether in the medical field or in organizations.

To obtain a further and more amusing yet informative view of the role of the manager we turn to Mant's (1977) historical styles of management, which has its contemporary meaning in today's managers (by sleight of author's licence). First, there is the RESPECTABLE BUCCANEER or the British proto-manager. This is the swashbuckling Sir Francis Drake type who uses 'who he knows' and 'who he is' to achieve results. The success of this style depends to a large extent on a highly developed sense of social skills and timing, but little else. He is the entrepreneur in its most extreme form.

The next managerial prototype is the AGENT. He acts on behalf of others, takes no decisions himself and has historical roots in the commercial world of nineteenth-century England. His contemporary counterpart is the 'middle manager' of today, who feels, not by choice, that his power

and ability to influence decisions is declining (due to the power of the trade union movement, greater participative decision making, etc.).

The SCIENTIFIC MANAGER is another breed of executive who is seen in organizational jungles from time to time. He tends to make decisions based on what appear to be rational and appropriate data, but frequently ignores the 'people problems' that result from his decisions or are created by them. Sheldon writing in 1923 (quoted in Mant, 1977) summed it up from a historical perspective: 'management is no longer the wielding of the whip; it is rather the delving into experience and building upon facts'. In contrast to the factual manager is the MANAGERIAL QUISLING, or as Mant puts it, 'the manager in the role of the pal'. This stems from the human relations school of management of the 1940s and 1950s. This prototypic manager is one who is supposed to be concerned with the quality of worklife and the well-being of workers. It is my view that this species of manager comes in different varieties. First, there is the GENUINE QUISLING, who really is concerned about the worker's health and well-being. Incidentally, this type of manager is usually so naïve about the politics of his organization that he fails to achieve his objectives, or achieves them at the expense of other people. Second, there is the ENTRE-PRENEURIAL QUISLING, who 'appears to care' but is really using the 'flavour of the month' managerial style to achieve recognition, or enhance his own image, or accomplish some political manoeuvre. He is the classic Milo Minderbinder in Heller's Catch-22; 'it's all in the syndicate and everybody has a share'.

Another managerial prototype is the MANAGER AS A TECHNOCRAT. He is a breed that grew up as the technology around them developed, particularly during the 1940s when we were increasingly looking to engineers for our salvation. This type of manager handles all issues as if they were technical problems capable of stress analysis, critical pathanalysis, etc. His concern for the 'people component' is once again a mere 'given' in the decision-making process.

And finally, there is the MANAGER AS A CONSTITUTIONALIST. This form of managerial style seemed to emerge from the Glacier Metal Company study undertaken by Brown (1965). This style of management is not unlike the Tavistock approach to applied problems in industry, in that it relies heavily on contractual arrangements. That is to say, it believes fundamentally that psychological contracts between individuals or representatives of groups are essential for harmonious relationships at work. Managers are effective, according to this strategy, if they work with their subordinates and colleagues in designing contractual arrangements on most issues of importance. This reduces ambiguity and heightens the boundaries on tasks, roles and organizational units.

What Mant (1977) has done in trying to identify managerial types is to suggest implicitly that each of the caricatures of prototypic executives is ineffective, but in

different ways. And although some managers utilize (consistently) one or more of these styles than others, the well-rounded and Twenty-First-Century manager will require a behavioural repertoire that encompasses nearly the whole range, but used flexibly and appropriately. We need to educate and train managers to understand the needs of people so that they take a scientific or diagnostic approach to problems and decision, but with a socio-technical, humanistic, and risk-taking orientation as well. To do this, one might follow the advice of many managers that 'behavioural scientists are incapable of telling us anything we don't already know'. This was epitomized in a piece that appeared in 'The Financial Times' a few years ago:

> Good evening gentlemen, welcome to the X management education establishment. You will have noted, perhaps with relief, the absence of faculty or curriculum. This is a regular feature of this programme and a closely-guarded secret of its alumni, present and past. If you should require any inducement to keep this secret you may be influenced by the £500 in crisp ten-pound notes which is to be found in a brown envelope in your bedroom. This represents half the fee paid by your employers and approximated expenditure that would otherwise have been incurred with respect to teaching staff salaries and related costs. In the meantime, meals and other services will be provided and the bar will remain open at normal opening times. You will have discovered that your colleagues are drawn from similar organizations to your own and contain amongst them a wealth of practical experience in all manner of managerial roles. There is also a first-rate library at your disposal. How you decide to pass these six weeks is your own managerial decision; we trust you will enjoy it and find it beneficial. Thank you.

On the other hand, we could begin to provide managers with information that behavioural scientists have accumulated over the last 30 years of empirical and theoretical development. It is this latter approach that we have decided to take in this volume, to make available psychological knowledge that may be of some use in dealing with individual, interpersonal, group and organization behaviour, and in creating change among individuals and organizations.

Trade unionists

Many trade union officials carry out a variety of tasks similar to many managers (discussed above) working within industrial and public sector organizations. They have the job of having to deal with a variety of different people they help to organize, to understand the dynamics of group situations (committees, negotiating groups, etc.) and to understand the structure and functioning of organizations and groups within them. In addition, they require other skills, which most, although not all, managers do not use on

a regular basis (e.g. negotiating and bargaining, interviewing, etc.).

One of the classic studies which has helped us to understand the major duties of various trade union officers was carried out by Clegg, Killick and Adams (1966). In their work they identified the main constituents of the job of full-time officers, branch secretaries, and shop stewards, among others.

It can be seen from table 1 that each category of trade unionist engages in quite different activities. In other words, they each need slightly different bits of psychological knowledge and training. Whereas full-time officers have to get involved quite regularly in high level negotiation exercises of one kind or another, this is not quite the case for branch secretaries or shop stewards (where their roles in negotiations are much more circumscribed). Shop stewards, on the other hand, require greater emphasis on interpersonal skills in their dealings with local management, grievances with foremen and other first line managers. Although the emphasis is different, the need for understanding and skill development in various psychological areas is of great importance to all trade union representatives. Indeed, it might be argued that many industrial relations disputes, which start as local matters, develop further because of the lack of psychological insight by both local management and the shop stewards into the 'real' underlying problems and their causes, and their consequent inability to deal with them at that level.

The role of the shop steward is critical, therefore, because of his unique set of boundary roles between the work group, the management and union officials. Torrington and Chapman (1979) suggest that the shop steward requires skills in at least six different and demanding tasks. First, he must have skills as a spokesman and negotiator, both for his fellow workers but also for management and 'the union' as well. Second, he is responsible for recruitment of union members among the employees. This means approaching new employees and maintaining contacts with older ones, which requires a high level of social and interpersonal skills. Third, the shop steward is responsible for the dissemination of information; on current working practices, on union policy, on management attitudes, etc. Fourth, he must possess the skills to counsel members with difficulties, or deal with advice to members about services available. Fifth, they must ensure, from time to time, the compliance with union rules in an effort to adhere to agreements or sustain union policy. And finally, but perhaps most importantly, shop stewards have to act as an important communications link between the workers, management, and the union officials. Goodman and Whittingham (1969) reflect this in the following:

> He will be expected to state grievances from the shop floor and, having reached an agreement with the management, will be expected to carry his members with

Table 1

Importance of main duties of full-time officers, branch secretaries and shop stewards (across a number of unions)
Source: Clegg, H. A., Killick, A. J. and Adams, R. (1966) Trade Union Officers, Oxford: Blackwell.

Main duties	Full-time officers (%)	Branch secretaries (%)	Shop stewards (%)
Negotiation	24	8	
Correspondence	18	16	6
Helping others	17	13	
Branch and other meetings	21	16	8
Recruiting new members	12		
Other office work	5		
Financial work	3	20	
Benefit claims and payments		12	
Arrears and meeting notices		6	
Branch minutes		5	
Membership transfers and resignations		4	
Discussions with members and shop stewards			32
Negotiations with management above foreman level			21
Taking up grievances with foremen			16
Works' committee, Joint Consultative committees, etc.			11
Rate fixing			6

Table 2

Shop stewards' view of their role
Source: Batstone, E., Boraston, I. and Frenkel, S. (1977).

	Staff (%)	Shop floor (%)
Promote socialism, trade union principles	12	16
Protect members, improve wages and conditions	31	100
Maintain unity and union organization	12	13
Ensure harmony with management	38	19
Solve problems in accordance with agreements	6	23
Act as communications channel with the membership	50	16
Total respondents	100%	100%
Number of respondents	16	31
Number of answers	24	58
No answer	3	–

him. As such, management may have a vested interest in his strength, regarding him as both representative and advocate. Additionally he will be expected to lead, as well as reflect, shop floor opinion. The steward's representative role may be further emphasized by participation in joint consultative committees, about which he should also disseminate information.

Although these six roles are the main functions performed by shop stewards, there are differences in emphasis between stewards depending on what group of workers they are representing. Batstone, Boraston and Frenkel (1977) found this in their study on 'Shop Stewards in Action'.

It can be seen from table 2 that staff stewards saw their role as 'ensuring harmony with management' and 'maintaining a communications channel with their membership', while shop floor stewards overwhelmingly saw their role as 'protecting members, improving wages and conditions'. While the balance between these various role functions can differ, the need for training in human relations skills and other aspects of human behaviour is crucial to effective trade unionism. Indeed, the Commission on Industrial Relations has

suggested, in terms of the training need of shop stewards, that

> it is necessary for him (the shop steward) to combine the skills of negotiation with those involved in communicating not only with management but with his members, fellow stewards and full-time officers. He needs analytic abilities in preparing cases and dealing with problems, and understanding of techniques such as work study and job evaluation.

It is hoped that various chapters in this book will aid the shop steward and other union officials in understanding and being able to carry out some of the 'people aspects' of their job. We are attempting to deal with only the cognitive or informational part of these skills; further work will have to be done by the unions themselves in action skills through various forms of experiential learning (Cooper, 1979a).

How to use this book

Most of the contributions written for this book are of value to both managers and trade union officials. Obviously some chapters are of more practical use to trade unionists (e.g. bargaining and negotiating) than managers, and vice versa, while some are not of any direct pragmatic value but are of greater foundational use in helping one to become more aware generally of human behaviour at work. The book is divided into five sections. The first section explores a number of topics that help to enhance our understanding of individual behaviour. The second section examines dyadic, inter-personal, group, and social behaviour. Section three highlights intergroup and other facets of organizational behaviour. In the fourth section, we attempt to bring together the individual, interpersonal and organizational factors of the previous three sections to focus on one of the most pressing and increasingly disruptive problems in contemporary organizations today, stress at work. This chapter not only highlights the major sources of stress acting on people at work in organizations, but also attempts to give the reader some insight on how important it is to take a multi-faceted view of organizational problems if we are to deal with the root causes and not the symptoms of conflict. And the final section explores change, the process and methods of personal, group and organizational change.

Individual behaviour

We start off this section by examining the concept of the self. Bannister asks a series of questions which it is essential for us to answer if we are to begin to understand anything about basic human needs and behaviour: what is the self, how do we know ourselves, do we change ourselves, how is our self-image related to others' view of our self, and what are the obstacles to self-knowledge and self-change? It